Portraits of Columb

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transcript of his features. In a first group the author places the pictures or engravings, the originals of which were perhaps taken from life at different perieds of the Admiral's career. The first member of this group is the lost original of the engraving published in the illustrated edition of the works of Paulus Jovius. This was taken from a picture in the Jovian Gallery, which was there sefore 1546. A copy of the same picture, made before the year 1508, is in the Uffizi Gallery Of this Jorian picture there ar four pretended originals, namely, the portrait at Como, known as the De Orchi; the picture at the National Library, Madrid, known as Yaflez portrait; the Cogoletto portrait. and, finally, the Cuccaro portrait, from which was taken the Cancellieri medallion. second member of this relatively authentic group is the original of the engraving publishd by Capriolo; the third is the picture atuted to Antonio del Rincon; the fourth is the Juan de la Cosa portrait; the fifth is the to portrait, and the sixth is the miniature in the Cluny Museum at Paris, from which perhaps the Sir Anthony More portrait was taken. With these approximations to firstand material are properly classed the pic

three based on them with more or less fidelity.

T.

Let us examine somewhat carefully the members of this group, for here, if anywhere can we hope to get an accurate idea of how Columbus looked. Paulus Jovius, Archbishor of Nocera, was born in 1483 and died in 1552. In his villa near Lake Como he made a large collection of portraits of famous persons. As no was an enthusiastic believer in Columbus It is not credible that he would be satisfied with overer. nor, on the other hand, is it likely that he could have ordered the portrait from life, because he was only 23 years old at the time of the navigator's death. We are justffled in inferring that he used the ample means at his command to acquire some trustworthy picture of the Admiral, taken from life either by some Spanish painter or by ope of the many Italian artists who visited Spain during the latter part of the last century. On the death of Jovius, a large part of his gallery was distributed and it is not known what became of the picture which was the original of the engraving published in the illustrated edition of his works. Admitting that the original has disappeared, let us see how Mr. Ponce de Loon describes the cut taken from it, which is unquestionably the first portrait of Columbus ever published. The engraving is on wood and somewhat rough, but full of vigor and vitality. It is a opr taken from the third edition of Elogia of Jovius, which appeared in 1575. It represents Columbus at over fifty years of age. with abundant and ourly bair, but without peard or moustache. It is a half length, showing the hands. The dress looks at first sight like that of a monk, but our author believes it to be a kind of cloak worn in Spain in mediaval times, but still in use by the sailors of the Bay of Biscay. The most important copy of the Jovian portrait of Columbus (from which is taken the cut just mentioned). undoubtedly that in the Uffizi Gallery in Florence. It has been there since before 1508. not a faithful copyist. He was careful, indeed, ot to give Columbus a beard or moustache but he deliberately tried to soften the hard features of the discoverer, and to make the expression milder, representing the face as fuller and the lineaments as less prominent. In so doing, he took away the energy and vigor and the expresof decision which render engraving in the book of Jovius so striking. Still, as we are able to trace this portrait to 1567, and probably to 1552, Mr. Ponce de Leon would pronounce it the oldest reasonably authenticated picture of the great Genoese. This picture has been repeatedly copied in and by all kinds of processes. Among them the copy formerly owned by Jefferson and now in the library of the Massachusetts Historical Society is well known. Our author ensiders the engraving in the Jovius book and the Fiorence portrait as the originals of about all the pictures of any importance Artists have introduced sundry variations in them, some from a want of skill, some delib erately to make people believe they were originals or copies from unknown originals. In the greater part of them, however, it is easy to detect that they all reproduce one single

type, that of the Jovian picture. We have mentioned that attempts have been made to identify the Jovian original now lost with four portraits which are extant. One of these, the Yanez portrait, is acknowledged to be of high importance, and is accordingly subjected to minute examination at the hands Mr. Ponce de Leon. In the year 1763 the Spanish Government bought from a Mr. Yafiez resident of Granada, a set of four beautiful, though somewhat ditabildated, portraits repesenting Columbus, Cortes, Quevedo, and Lope de Vega. To judge from appearances, all were painted by the same hand, but this procludes the idea that the Columbus portrait could have been taken from life, as Cortes was almost a boy when Columbus died, and Quevedo and ope were born almost half a century after his death. Carderera considered it an old copy of the Jovian picture, and as the oldest portrait of Columbus existing in Spain. He believed it was painted in Italy in the sixteenth century by some artist of the Florentine school. It noteworthy that Carderers and other artists bserving on this picture the clumsy brush marks of a modern restorer, decided to renove these, and the operation was successfully performed. Under the old picture mergel a new one full of life and vigor, which has all the characteristies of Columbus, and bears as extraordinary resemblance to the Jovian type. The hair is shorter than in the portrait in Florence. but is similar to the cut in the Joylan book Mr. Ponce de Leon deems this Yaftez portrait as it now stands perhaps the only one in which are faithfully exhibited all the characteristics of Columbus, as described by those who personally know him. This seems, thereore, a fitting place in which to transcribe the fore, a litting place in which to transcribe the descriptions of the admiral left by Peter Martyr, Oviedo, Las Casas, and Ferdinand Columbus, or whoever it was that compiled the Historic published under his name. It will be observed to the column of the that only one of the four asserts that Colum bus wore a beard at any period of his life. Peter Martyr says the Admiral was "a man of tall afature, ruddy color, well built, and of od appearance." Oviedo speaks of him as " man of good stature and aspect, tall rather than of medium size, of vigorous build, with brilliant eyes and well proportioned as to the rest of his face, very red hair, and with a face some what ruddy and freekled; gracious, when he wanted to be so, full of ire when his pa ions were roused." Las Casas describes him as follows: "As to his exterior person and poral proportions, he was tall rather than of medium size: the face long and command g: aquiline nose, light eyes, complexion fair. sending to a deep red. The beard and hair when he was a young man were fair, but very soon urned white on account of his many toils inally, in his person and venerable aspect, he

ed the appearance of one of high post

see and authority and worthy of all rever-

ence." Ferdinand Columbus, his son, or who-ever it was that wrote the Histoire, says: "The Admiral was a man of good appearance, above the medium height, with long face and somewhat prominent cheek bones and of average weight. He had an aquiline nose, light eyes. fair complexion and was very ruddy. When a routh his bair was fair, but at 30 years of age it had all turned white." Other secounts of the appearance of Columbus de deserve attention because they were all made a long time after his death. But it is obvious that any alleged portrait not agreeing with the four descriptions above cited must be rejected as apocryphal and worthless.

Let us turn now to the Cogoletto portrait. one of the four pictures which purport to be the originals of the Jovian cut. Cogoletto is small village fifteen miles from Genoa. hich claims to be the birthplace of Columbus. In a house alleged to be that in which the discoverer was born there is, a small portrait of Columbus, asserted to be of great anliquity, but which is evidently only a copy of the Jovius. There is, however, another pleture in the Council Hall of the village which is deeply interesting. According to Isnadi n his work, "Sulle Patria de Colombo," its blatory can be traced for over 300 years, and some have gone so far as to pretend that it is the original and now lost portrait of the lovian gallery. A glance at the reproduction of it in the book before us suffices to bring out its striking likeness to all the portraits emanating from the Jovian type. It even has the

same inscription. There is a third noteworthy picture at Cuccaro in the house of Fidele Guglielmo Colombo, which has long been preserved by the branch of the Colombo family residing in this place. The Colombo family aver that their picture is the original Jovian portrait. It was accepted as genuine by Napione and ancellieri, but the majority of experts regard t as only a poor copy.

A fourth picture, known as the de Orchi, receives extended notice at our author's hands, both on account of its intrinsic artistic morit and because the owner pretends that it is the original Jovian portrait. It seems that when the Jovian collection was divided between the two branches of the owner's family, one took the pictures of men illustrious in arms, the other that of men illustrious in letters. The first branch is now represented by the Marguis Giorgio Roimondi, the de Orchi family, and Mr. Vietro Novelli. Dr. Alessandro de Orchi is the present owner of a remarkable picture of Columbus which is not signed. Some attribute it to Bartolomeo Suardi; others to Sebastian del Piombo. If it was painted by Piombo, it could not have been taken from life, as this artist was born in 1485, and was therefore but 21 years of age at the date of the death of Columbus, in 1500. Moreover. he never left Italy until 1510. Bartolomed Suardi reached the zenith of his fame at the end of the fifteenth century, and died in 1530; but although we have very full accounts of his life, there is no record of his having ever been in Spain. Mr. Ponce de Leon admits that this picture may be from the brush of one of these painters, or from that of some other distinguished artist, who may have copied it from an original Spanish painting. Its likeness, however, to the Jovian cut and to the copy of the Jovian original in the Uffizi gallery is very striking. Whatever view may be taken of the circumstances under which this picture was painted, the best judges ascribe it to a master hand, and the wellknown Americanist, Mr. Clement Markham. considers it the only authentic portrait of Columbus in existence.

HII.

Was the engraving published by Capriolo made from a portrait of the Admiral taken from life? This engraving first appeared i the work of Cento Capitani Illustri, printed at Rome in 1596. Considered from an artistic viawpoint, this engraving is much superior to the Jovian cut, but our author has no doubt that, like the latter, it was copied from the picture in the Jovian gallery. Many tions, nevertheless, were introduced in it, due partly to the whim of Capriolo, who liked to represent all his heroes as good-looking, and to that end purposely softened vigorous lineaments. The Capriolo engraving presents a bust with long lank hair, carefully combed at s changed to a Roman toga crossed over the shoulders, and in the corner are seen the arms of Columbus. Carderers considered it one of the most valuable portraits of Columbus, and was of opinion that this cut and that of Jovius were the most fitting to be used in erecting any iconographic monument to Columbus. The well-known portrait in the Naval Museum at Madrid is simply a splendid and very recent roduction in oil of the Capriolo engraving. combined with the other historical types above lescribed. It is positively known that this picture was painted by order of the Spanish Government in 1838 by a French artist named

We come now to the picture attributed to Antonio del Rincon, and to the so-called Juan de la Cosa portrait. The Rincon picture would be of supreme biographical importance if its authenticity could be established. It tallies exactly with the description of the Admiral and looks very like the Jovian cut. It is unquestionably very old and has been repro-duced repeatedly. From time immemorial, it has been in the private library of the Kings of Spain, and there is a legend that it was painted by Antonio del Rincon on the return of Columbus from his second voyage. There is not. however, a scintilla of evidence as to its auhenticity. The utmost that can be said is that copies of it were taken before 1000, and that its general characteristics confirm the belief that it is the work of Rincon or of one of his disciples. There is no doubt that Rincon resided at the Spanish court from 1493 up to his death in 1500, and the portrait has such a spirited air that it looks as though it were taken from life. There is, however, no record of Columbus sitting to Rincon or of the existence of any portrait Ly any Spanish master.

Charles Legrand.

The famous chart of Juan dela Cosa, the pilot of Columbus, was drawn, according to an Inscription in the year 1500. On one of its sides there is a miniature representing St. Christopher conveying the infant Jesus on his back from one continent to the other. drawing is rude, and the features of the saint have not the slightest resemblance to those of Columbus as described by his contemporaries There is no direct evidence to show that Juan de la Cosa intended to present an accurate portrait of Columbus in this chart, though he may have wished to give an allegorical representation of his chief's performance. The supposes portrait which is reproduced by Mr. Ponce de Leon looks more like a grotesque Japanese caricature than a Spanish picture of he year 1500.

IV. We come finally to the Lotto portrait, which is supposed to have been painted for a Yenetian Senator at the instance of the Secretary of the Venetian Ambanasdor to Spain, who, in 1501, is said to have been in intimate com munication with Columbus at Granada. This is undoubtedly a beautiful pleture. In it the head of Columbus is uncovered, the bair is white and falls almost to the shoulder. It is parted in the middle and the face is clean shaven, as is the case with all the portraits of the discoverer which have any claim to authenticity. The Admiral is clothed in a lownecked white shirt without collar, with a red recarlet coat, which is almost concealed by an ample mantle with fur lapels somewhat like hose exhibited in the Yanez portrait before the additions made by an inexpert restorer were removed. In the right hand he holds a chart, copied from that by De Ruysch, and in the left an hour glass, which stands upon a book labelled Aristotie. The map itself is our dusive proof that the picture was not taken from life, as it was first published in 1508, two years after the death of Columbus, or six or seven years subsequent to 1501 or 1502, when the portrait is alleged to have been made. The attempt of Mr. J. C. Van Dyke to defend the authenticity of this picture on the ground that all ountries shown in the map were already known to the Spaniards, is frustrated by the fact detocted by Mr. Harrisse that the artist has copied even the errors of longitude found n the De Ruysch map. In a letter to THE SUN. Mr. Harrisse set forth many other reasons for believing the Lotto picture, viewed as a portrait of Christopher Columbus, to be a sheer Italian fabrication. He does not deem it, however, any worse than many other apo daubs which are now being collected in Italy and Spain by overzealous patricts who do not seem to be aware that they are striving to make of history a delusion and a farce. As to the Sir Anthony Moore portrait, now

the property of Mr. Gunther, this, in the pinion of many experts, is undoubtedly from the hand of Moro, but it could not have been aken from life, and it is even questionable whether the artist intended to represent Columbus. The name in the corner may have been added by any one at any time. This so called portrait depicts Columbus with a moustache and goatee, and with his hair clipped According to the eminent Spanish painter and critic Carderera, moustaches and goatees were never worn in the time of Columbus, and the hair, far from being out short, was wern long and cut horizontally, often covering the cars. As for the other portraits of Columbus classified in distinct groups by Mr. Ponce de Leon, none of them has a claim to trustworthiness comparable with that of any of the pictures above described. Emphatically is this true of those which represent Columbus with a beard

Poland.

The editors of the Story of the Nations Serfer have done well to confide the volume which deals with Poland to Mr. W. R. Morrill, well known as the most accomplished Slavonic scholar in England. In the Nory of Polano Putnams) Mr. Morfill conducts us from the first landmark in Polish history across nine hundred years to the second Polish insurrection in 1860. It is an extremely complicated subject which he has undertaken to discuss, not only because ethnologically the word Poland means very different things at different spochs, but because, from an international riewpoint, the face of the country is sometimes urned westward toward Germany, sometimes northward toward Sweden, and sometimes eastward toward Russia. It is therefore a difficult task to make the outlines of Polish history clear to readers in Western Europe and Amerca, but we do not hesitate to say that Mr. Morfill has accomplished it. An attentive pe rusal of the book will lessen the vague sympathy felt in this country for the Poles, for the truth is that most of the so-called Polish territory now included in the Czar's dominions was conquered by the Polish kings, and is tenanted by people who speak dialects much more nearly akin to the Russian than to the Polish tongue. When the Czars occupied Livonia, Lithuania, Little Russia, and Red Russia they did but recover their own; and in losing these territories the Poles only met with their deserts.

It is searcely practicable to furnish an outine of a book which is itself an outline, but an effort in that direction can be made by marking the principal events in Polish history. We hould first, however, try to compress in a paragraph certain physiographical and ethnoogical data. The country whose story Mr. Morfill would recount is a vast plain, most of which is comprised in the great central depression of Europe. It had hardly any natural frontiers, with the exception of the Baltic on the north and the Carpathians in the south; from the Black Sea it was excluded by the Tatars and the Turks. Its great arterial river was the Vistula, whose basin formed the centre of the kingdom. The greatest length of the country from north to south was 713 English miles, and from east to west 693 miles: it embraced an area of about 282,000 English squate miles, which in 1880 supported a population of 24,000,000. There is much good arabic and pasture land, but there are also barren tracts consisting of sand and swamp, especially in the eastern parts of the country. Wheat, barley, rye, and other cereals are produced. In addition to the vast salt mines near Cracow, there are some small iron, copper, and lead deposits. The populaof the former kingdom of Poland braced members of three races, to wit: the Aryan, the Ugro-Finnish, and the Semitic. To the Aryan race belong the Poles who, including the Kashubes, number more than nine and a half millions. The Poles, as their language shows, pertain to the western branch of the Slavonic race, that is to say, are brothers of the Czechs, Aryan also are the Malo or Red Russians, the White Russians, and the Lithuanians, Letts, and Samogitians, all of whom belong to the eastern branch of the Slavonic family. Among Aryans, too, should, of course, be classified the Germans, who arrived in Poland as early as the thirteenth century; who constituted for the most part the burgher class in cities; and who now number about two millions. Neither should we overlook among the Aryan constituents of the Polish population the Armenians, who, like the Germans arrived in the thirteenth century, and whose descendants are still to be found in great numbers in Galicia. The only Ugro-Finnish inhabitants of Poland are the Esthonians (brothers of the Finns), who are encountered in the Baltic provinces. As to the Semitic factor, the earliest Jewish immi-grants reached Poland from the countries of the lower Danube, and from the kingdom of the Khazars, who had accepted the Hebrew faith. At the end of the eleventh century another stream of Jewish immigrants came from Germany. It is computed that the sesent number of Jews in the country which once formed Poland is about two million two hundred thousand. They have never been assimilated, and they use German instead of the Polish language.

Now let us indicate the epoch-making events

Mieszko, the Polish Prince, became a feudatory of the German Empire, and received the Latin form of Christianity from Bohemian priesls. The next important incident occurred in 1024, when Bolesias the Great was crowned King. Fifty years later Poland reverted to its original condition as a duchy, and did not again became a kingdom until 1295. In the middle of the fourteenth century we encoun ter the reign of Casimir the Great, when Gail cia Lemberg and Volhynia were annexed to Poland. In 1393 Jadwign, heiress of the Polish dominions, married Jaglello of Lithuania. who was crowned King of Poland. In 1525 Albert of Brandenburg was invested with the title of Duke of Prussia as a feudatory of the Polish sovereign. In 1501 Livonia was united to the repub lic, and eight years later, at the Diet of Lublin. the definite union of Poland and Lithuania was effected. In 1651 occurred the first exercise of the Liberum-Veto, which was to prove so ruinous to the State. Four years later broke out the war with Sweden, in the course of which the Swedish King took Warsaw and Cracow. Two years afterward the elector of Brandenburg was released from the feudal obligations which, as Duke of Prussia, he owed to Poland. To the latter years of the same century belongs the reign of John Sobieski, famous for his rescue of Vienna, but whose conduct in peace was by no means comparable with his provess in war. In 1720 took place the ratification of the union of the Greek and Latin churches, and about fifty rears later the first partition of Poland was secomplished. The dates 1793 and 1795 mar the second and third partitions, after which the only notable incidents are the cres tion of the Duchy of Warsaw, and of the kingdom of Poland, and the two Polish insurrections in 1830 and 1860. During the 900 years of their national history, the Poles more than once mistook the quarter from which danger .... to be feared. Their deadly enemies were not the Swedes on the north or the Turks on the south.

as they sometimes imagined, but the Germans on the West and the Bussians on the East. In

in Polish history. The annals of the country

may be said to begin about A. D. 965, when

early days Poland looked with well-founded distruct on Germany. She was at first more or less a dependency of the German emptre. and the power of her Teutonic neighbors was strengthened for aggression—first, by the numbers of Germans that formed the bulk of the urban population, and, secondly, by the collab introduction of the Teutonic knights. out of whose territory, originally small, the great duchy of Prussia was eventually formed. The rivalry between Russia and Poland did not begin until the reign of Ivan IV. in the sixteenth century. Stephen Batory, as if au-ticipating the relations in which the two countries would stand to one another, was unre nitting in his efforts to dismember Russia For a time there was some prospect of success but, the tide soon turning, the Poles lost Kiev and some of their eastern provinces. There was always an indistinct border line between the two countries, inasmuch as Poland had ac uired by conquest and marriage a large popu lation of White Russians and Malo-Russians rho, as we have said, spoke languages closely akin'to the Muscovite tongue, were adherents of he Greek Church, and belonged to the eastern branch of the Slavonic family. As for Austria. she did not encroach upon the Polish territory in the independent days of the republic; she contented herself with getting as many archduchesses as possible married to Polish kings After the Elector of Brandenburg acquired the Duchy of Prussia, and got released from the homage he owed for it to the Polish Crown he became one of the most formidable ene mies of the country. To Prussia was largely due the successive dismemberments which by the close of the eighteenth century had blotted

Poland from the map of Europe. HI. It was the German Emperor Otho L who by he hand of one of his lieutenants conquere Mieszko, the heathen prince of the country on the Warts from the Oder Vistula, and compelled him to pay tribute. Iwo years later Mieszko, we are told. became a Christain in order to marry the daughter of Boleslas, the King of Bo As we have said, the type of Christianity received was the Latin, and thus, at the outset Poland was placed in contrast to Eussia. whose civilization was Byzantine. Mieszko was succeeded by his son Boleslas the Great. under whom the Duchy of Poland was raised y Otho III. into a kingdom. After the death of Otho, in 1002, the quarrels about the imperial throne enabled Boleslas to conquer all Lusatia and Misnia and ultimately to take possession of Bohemia and Moravia. peace was finally made, in 1013, all the territory east of the Oder was declared Slavonic and freed from German rule. The reign of Boleslas was one of great progress for the Polish people. Money was coined, trade was extended, and new cities were built. To spread Christianity more effectually. Benedictine monks were brought from France and monasteries were built for them in several places At this time also, schools were established By founding the archbishopric of Gnesen Boleslas organized an independent Polish Church, to which were subordinated the other ishopries which he and his father had created. By the beginning of the eleventh century Poland had absorbed nearly all the Western Slavonic States, including Bohemia.

Polabes, however, a tribe which occupied the this time lost to the Slava, and, in course of time, became more and more Germanized, although their language did not die out till the earlier part of the eighteenth century. Polish society at this epoch was organized entirely on a military basis. The country was divided into Pagi and Provincia, and the King' Governors, or Castellans, were stationed the towns or fortresses. The priv fleged class in whose hands lay the power was called the Sziachta, a word apparently derived from the German Geschlacht, Subsequently this word came to mean the mino nobles, as distinguished from the great fords. We may add that the frequent wars of Boleslas filled the country with slaves, who must have produced a profound effect upor the preceding rural population. In the two and a half centuries that elapsed between the death of Boleslas and the reign of Przemyslaw I, only a few incidents deserve attention. It was the son of Bolesias who divided Poland into palatinates. About a hundred years later Silesia was definitely lost to Poland, having become partly Germanized under success ive Germanized princes. The Polish language. however, is still spoken in some of its districts It was in the early part of the thirteenth century that the Duke of Masovia allowed the order of Teutonic Knights to settle in the Polish territories on the Baltic. The Teutonic Knights were originally an order founded at Jerusalem to take care of the pilgrims who resorted thither, They were established by the Pope in 1191. Their habit was a black coat and white cloak, the latter bearing a black cross. Their weapon was a large sword without any ornament; they slept upon a bed of straw, and for diet were only allowed bread and water. An oath was taken by each candidate on entering the order that he was of German blood and of noble family, and that he would lead a life of chastity. The Teutonic Knights were eventually amalgamated with the swordearing knights of Livonia. In the reign of Boleslas V. (1227-1279) occurred the great invasion of the Mongols. These nomads, after conquering Russia, made an incursion into Poland, but, being defeated at Liegnitz in Silesia in 1241, were diverted into Hungary. They carried off many prisoners, however, and we are told that nine sacks were filled with the ears of the slain. It was at this epoch also that large colonies of Germans settled in the country. They were established as free nhabitants of the land in contradistinction to the Polish peasant, who was becoming more and more enslaved by the corvée or forced labor required of him. A considerable number of German towns sprang up. Owing to the little inclination of the Slav natives for trade, commerce fell almost wholly into the hands of these colonists, who enjoyed peculiar privileges, and were governed by laws of their wn embodied in the Magdeburg code; in deed, for upward of a century they retained the right of appeal to the mugistrate at Magdeburg. It is from this time that we can trace the introduction of many German words into the Polish language. Contemporaneously with the Germans, the Armenians

HII.

considerable prosperity.

their appearance in Poland. They likewise

equired importance as traders, and under

their influence the city of Lemberg attained

Gregory VII. (Hildebrand) had put the whole of Poland under an interdict, and for more than 200 years his successors, although they suffered the churches to be reopened. would recognize the assumption of the title of king by the Polish ruler, who remained, accordingly, a duke. It was not until 1295 that Przemyslaw reconstituted l'oland as a kingdom without troubling himself to secure the permission of the Pope. About 1312 Cracow became the capital and the centre of the national life. The early part of the fourteenth century witnessed the rise of the Lithuanian principality, which was subsequently to be incorporated with Poland. In 1333 began the reign of Casimir III., to whom his countrymen gave the appellation of the Great, and also that of the Peasants' King. Under his rule the material prosperity of the country was augmented. Commerce was developed, and Cracow and Dantzic became members of the Hanseatto League. We also begin to hear of Warsaw. which was destined ultimately to become the capital. The father of Casimir had convoked the first known Diet; it consisted of princes. prelates, barons, and knights. Casimir himself in 1364 tried to found a university at Crasow, but the attempt did not succeed, and for sometime longer the Polish youth repaired for education to the University of Prague. It was reserved for Queen Jadwigs and her husband. Ladislaus, to carry out the plans of Cas-

land: It has never been thoroughly Polon-ized, however, the mass of the popula-tion even to the present day speaking the Malo-Russian language. In 1347 was held the celebrated Diet at Wislies. at which was enacted the so-called statute. the first monument of Polish jurisprudence. The code consists of two parts, dealing with Great Poland and Little Poland respectively Throughout the history of Poland, her provinces had many separate laws and privileges The statutes were in the Latin language. which not only in the fourteenth century, but for a long time afterward was much used in the country. In 1334, also in the reign o Casimir, and again in 1337, were passed some memorable laws relating to the Jews. large were the privileges granted to the Israelites in Poland in comparison with their disabilities in central and western Europe that, in a short time, most of the Polish cities

and villages received colonies of Jews. The fact that Casimir had only one child. and that a daughter, led to an important constitutional change. In a Diet at Cracow proposed as his successor his nephew, Louis of Hungary. This was practically coto the Diet the privilege of electing their sovereigns, and the nobles forthwith turned the oncession to account. Before they allowed Louis to succeed they made him assent to certain stipulations which formed the foundation of the Pacta Conventa, or agreement which every succeeding sovereign had to make.

The reign of Louis of Hungary is noteworthy from the fact that, having no male offspring. he provailed on the Diet of Koszyzein in 1374 to sanction the succession of his daughter Jadwiga. He only secured this concession by granting fresh privileges to the nobility, and especially by relieving the Szlachta or class of minor nobles almost wholly from taxation. On her father's death Jadwigs, a woman of beauty and spirit, was compelled by the Diet to marry a man of savage manners. Jagielio, the Prince of Lithuania with a view to the union of that country with Poland. About the Lithuanians, we hear nothing till the beginning of the thirteenth century, but at that time one of their chiefs formed their territories into a principality and a century later the importance of their country reached its height under Gedymin who contrived to possess himself of many Russian cities, including oven Kiev. The capital of the Lithuanian State was Wilno and it extended from the Baltic to the Black Sea. The official language of the country was White Russian, and in this tongue its laws were promulgated. At the time of his with Jadwiga, Jagiello was a Pagan, but he was ready to turn Christian, both to please his wife and because he was born of a Christian mother. He already numbered among his subjects many members of the orthodox Greek Church, with whom neither he nor his predecessors seem o have interfered. He assumed the name of Ladislaus on his conversion (in 1386), and in als person begins the dynasty of the Jagiellos which insted for nearly two centuries, terminating in 1572 with Sigismund Augustus. We might even say that it lasted nearly a century onger, if we omit the short and brilliant reign of Stephen Batory. Ladislaus really forfeited the crown in 1399 through the death of his Queen Jadwiga, in whose right he held it, but the Poles, recognizing the advantage of the connection of Poland and Lithuania, upheld him in his position. In 1410 the Poles com-bined with the Lithuanians to defeat the Teutonic Knights in a great battle near Tannenberg, an important result of which was a closer union between Poland and Lithuania. The latter country now began to be organized on Polish principles; Palatines were appointed, and Castellans were set over Vilna and Troki. The attempts to make the Catholic religion preponderant in Lithuanis met with sturdy opposition on the part of the orthodox clergy, who preferred to accept for their spiritual rulers the Metropolitan of Kiev and the Patriarch of Constantinople.

... IV. 5 The reign of Casimir IV. (1447-1492) is in. teresting from a constitutional point of view. Then it was that the nobles first elected Deputies to attend the Diet, when they them selves were unable to be present. The statute of Nieszawa, passed in 1454, has been called the Polish Magna Charta. It is, in fact, the great charter of the rights and privileges of the Polish nobility. At this time, also, there were enacted some mischievous laws ag-gravating the condition of the serfs. Previously it had been possible for serf who was ill treated to fly from his lord Now it was provided that he must be surren dered on demand, and penalties were incurred by any one who harbored him. On Casimir's death ensued some troubles about the success sion. Lithuania, which still held somewha loose relations to her sister State, held an independent Diet and chose for her prince Alexander, a son of the late King. In return Alex ander granted a charter whereby the princes. prelates, barons, minor nobles, and cities Lithuania were to have the same rights and privileges as the Polish nobility possessed In Poland those who wished that the union with Lithuania should be maintained desired to take Alexander for their King, but others were for his eldest brother, John Albert, who was ultimatel It was John Albert who, in 1490, at the Diet of Pietrkow, made further and fatal concessions to the nobility. Not only were their former privileges renewed, but the King'r judicial and fiscal rights were limited and the peasants were completely bound to the soil. Th existing laws respecting the surrender of fugitive serfs were extended and made to apply to the children of plebetans; not more than one child was henceforth to be allowed to go to the towns to study or practice a trade, and where only one son was born in a family he was to stay to work upon the land. The hopeless bondage of the Polish peasant dates from this hateful statute. No peasant or burghe was eligible to any of the higher offices of the Church; the peasantry were obliged to bring all legal matters in which they were concerned before tribunals presided over by their own masters; they were also forbidden to own any landed property. It was further provided that the King was neither to enact any laws nor to declare war without the consent of the Diet. This was obviously a lone step toward the transformation of the Polish monarchy into an oligarchy. John Albert was succeeded his brother Alexander, the Grand Duke of Lithuania. At the outset of this reign the noblity endeavored to extort so great additional concessions from the King that, had he made them, he would have become merely the President of the Senate. Alexander professed to consent. but returned to Lithuanis, and on his return was able to annul the obnoxious legislation In his reign, however, may be traced the germ of the liberum veto. In a diet held at Radon in 1505, it was settled that the decision of the Deputies was not to depend on a majority, but must imply unanimity.

With the death of Alexander we emerge

from the mediaval period, and it is worth while to note how Poland stood toward the Reforms tion, the growth of the burgher class, and other factors of modern history. At the beginning of the modern epoch we find her governed by an oligarchy of nobles who are continually on croaching upon the power of the Crown. There is no national middle class; the burghers are Germans or Jews or Armenians; the peas antry have lost all their privileges and are bound to the soil, with no power of resisting the tyranny or caprice of their masters. No national literature has as yet been developed: such authors as had appeared were ecclesiastics and wrote in In the reign of Sigismund L. however (1507-1548), Poland derived a certain justre from the astronomer Coparnicus, who was a native of Thorn. The doctrines of the Reformation soon made their appearance in Poland. and, at first. Sigismund temporized with the gowerful faction which had adopted Luther-anism. In 1524, his nephew. Albert, the Grand Master of the Teutonie Knights and imir. We should mention that in 1340 the ruler of eastern Prussis, accepted the Luth-arinelpality of Galicie had been united to Po- i eran religion, and preclaimed the seculariza-

sla became a kingdom. Under the next King, the Dissidents, as the Protestants were called, made great progress in Lithua-nis, and the first Protestant Bible was printed in Polish in 1503, at the expense of the Palatine of Wilno. The religious question was debated at a Diet held near Warsaw in 1573. The principles there laid down were excellent, but they were not carried out. It was provided that no religious differences were to be settled by the sword; there was to be universal toleration. From this statute we learn that the Polish noble were supposed to be masters of the spiritual as well as the material existence of their seris: that is to say, Poland applied to its nobles the maxim Cujus regio ejus religio, which was to be adopted by the German princes. With the death of Sigismund Augustus, in 1572, the direct line of the Jaciellos ceased in Poland. though we afterward find it continued in the female branch. The most remarkable even of this reign was the abolition of home rule in Lithuania and the close union of the province with Poland. This took place at the Diet of Lublin in 1569. was arranged that Warsaw should be the seat of the Diet under the enlarged republic. and it became the capital of the kingdom under Sigismund III. We pass over the short and insignificant reign of Henry, the Duke of Anjou, and come to 1570, when the Poles, who had been subjected to an eruption of the Tatars, chose for their King the renowned soldier, Stephen Batory, Prince of Transylvania. Stephen was a vigorous ruler, such as Poland was not to see again till the days of John Sobelski. He effectually checked the encroachments of Ivan the Terrible, and the main object of his reign was the dismemberment of Russia, whose growing power he viewed with well-founded misgiving. Russia was only saved from mutilation, which would have walled her out of Europe, by the death of the Transylvanian prince, and she was destined to run the same risk in the days of Sigismund III. and Ladislius IV. It was Stephen Batory who founded the University of Wilno. and it was he who first organized the Cossacks, of whom we hear so much in Polish and Russian history. The Cossacks of the Dnieper were formed into six regiments of 1,000 men each. Most historians hold that with the death of Batory the decadence of Poland really begins. He had shown himself a vigorous ruler not merely in his foreign policy, but by the firm hand with which he directed the internal affairs of the kingdom. He did what he could to restrict the inordinate privileges of the nobility, and he aimed to make Poland a member of the European system. Hitherto, although we occasionally hear of embassies sent for extraordinary purposes, the republic did not maintain permanent Min isters at foreign courts any more than the Russians did. Even as late as the middle of the seventeenth century King Ladislias IV. paid no heed to an invitation to take part in the congress which arranged the treaty of Westphalia. Curiously enough, Batory. although there is regson to believe that he was a Protestant at the time of his election to the throne, introduced the Jesuits, and favored them so much that their schools and colleges spread all over the country. To the Jesuits is due the fact that Catholicism ultimately obtained ascendancy even in Lithuania. It was also due to the Jesuits that in 1595 the schism of the so-called Uniates took place, the number of whom at the present time is very small in Russia, their stronghold being in Galicia-The Uniates were orthodox Greek Christians who accepted the chief points of the Council of Florence, admitted the words flioque in the creed, the doctrine of purgatory, and the Papal supremacy, but were allowed to retain some points of discipline belonging to the Eastern Church and the use of the old Slavonic

tion of his dominions; he still, however, acknowledged the suzerainty of Poland. We

shall find this suzerainty resigned in 1008.

and thirty-five years later the Duchy of Prus-

During the long reign of Sigismund III. Poland was in a state of continual decadence. The Dissidents were estranged by religious persecutions, the anarchy of the nobles was at its height, and the Cossacks, who had failed to obtain the privilege of taking part in the Diet, were on the eve of their great rebellion. The rebellion took place under Bogdan Khmelnitski. Mr. Morfill accepts the derivation of the term Cossack from the Turkish word Kazak, meaning a robber. A large number of bold soldiers, fugitives from the many nations that occupied the vast steppes stretching between the confines of Poland and Turkey, had established a kind of military republic on some slands in the Dnieper. into which no woman to penetrate. As we h Batory had the policy converted these marauders into regiments of frontiers men, but they were stanch adherents of the Greek Church, and, as such, were worried by Jesuit emissaries. Partly religious and partly political motives led to their rebellion. culminated, after some years of war, in their taking the oath of allegiance to the Czar.

language in their rituals.

It was at a Diet in 1651 that the first instance occurred of a single delegate bringing the proceedings to a close by using the liberty eto, or, as it was called in Polish, niepozwalam "I forbid"). This was done by Sicinski, leputy from Lithuania. We have seen that the germ of this custom can be traced much further back, and, indeed, the idea that a vote should be unanimous was rooted in the Sla-vonic mind. It was exemplified in the early as semblies of Russia, but the plan had obvious

disadvantages, it being easy to bribe a deputy The reign of John Casimir, in which tool place the incident just mentioned, is especially memorable for the invasion of Poland by Charles Gustavus, who had succeeded to the Swedish throne on the abdication of Christina. Both Warsaw and Cracow sub mitted to the Swedes, and they advanced as far as Lemberg, in Galicia. Charles Gustavus was even said to have proposed the partition of the country. He offered Great Poland to the Elector of Brandenburg, Little Poland to the Duke of Transylvania, and the great par of Lithuania to one of the great liadziwill family. But Poland's hour had not yet come. The subjects of John Casimir rallied round alm. and he eventually succeeded in driving out the Swedish King, who, how-Livonia by the treaties signed in 1660. John Casimir abdicated in 1638, after warning the Poles that their constant dissen

John Casimir abdicated in 10-28, after warning the Poles that their constant dissensions would inevitably lead to the dissemberment of the republic. With him the race of the Jagiellos, which had been continued in the branch line of the Vasas, came to an end. He survived his abdication about four years, most of which he spent in Paris. Where Louis XIV, gave him the revenues of two abheys, and where the ex-King of Poland is said to have secretly married Marie Mignot, who had orgainally been a hundress, but was then widow of the Marchaid tell Houltat.

The next great name, and possibly one should say the greatest name, in Polish history is that of John Sobieski, who reigned from 1674 to 1863. He was born in 1620, the great victory which he gained over the Turks at Chocin in 1673 that caused him to be chosen King by the Diet held at Warraw in the following year. Two years later he was obliged to encounter a second invasion of the Turks in conjunction with the Tatars, and, although he could but muster 20,050 men, he managed to make head against his assailants and to conclude a treaty by which part of the Ukraine and Podolia were recovered. For the moment, indeed, the Turks were disposed to leave Poland in peace, for they were preparing for the great with more clothes the wester. As they consist of skins and constitute the same year, when Sobieski, having arrived from Cracow, fell upon the Turks and been described. We will only mention that it lasted from July 14, 1083, to Sept. 12 of the same year, when Sobieski, having arrived from Cracow, fell upon the Turks and been described. We will only mention that it lasted from Cracow, fell upon the Turks and been from Cracow, fell upon the Turks and been from the wird reverse the final proposed to be the same rear, when Sobieski, having arrived the same year, when Sobieski, having arrived from Cracow, fell upon the Turks and been from the first was been the same and the from the first was the continued to the first was the continued to the first was the continued to the fi

known that the Polish warrior met with ingratitude and neglect at the hands of the Hapsburg sovereign. Mindful of this, the Czar, Nicholas L, at the time when Austria repaid him for intervening in Hungary by joining the Western powers in the Crimean war, said to a bystander, "Why am I like John Sobleski? Because we were both fools enough to save Vienna."

The remaining years of Sobleski's reign were empittered by constant disputes in the Diets, several of which were broken off by the exercise of the liberum veto. When he died, in 1696, the glory of Poland may be said to have been extinguished.

VI.

That part of the eighteenth century during which Poland was ruled by Electors of Saxony was a period of decline, and paved the way for the first dismemberment, which took place in 1772. The idea of the partition is said to have originated with Frederick the Great, whose brother, Prince Henry, when he visited St. Petersburg, sounded Catharine II. on the subject. By the first partition Prussia obtained the Palatinates of Marienburg. the Pomorze (or district adjoining the sea and Warmis, except Danzie and Thorn. To her also fell a portion of Great Poland. Austria got Red Russia, or Galicia, with parts of Podolla and Little Poland, while Russia seized the Palatinates of Macialaw and Wittak, with some other parts of Palatinates situated on the Dnieper. In 1773 a kind of Constitution was drawn up for the Polish republic, but the mischievous liberum veto was preserved in all its force, and, in the following year, the privileges which had recently been granted to the Dissidents were diminished. At a Diet held in Grednow in 1778, the Poles were compelled to acquiesce in the mutilation of their country by the three neighboring powers. A short period of comparative tranquillity and progress supervened. A better system of education was introduced; the condition of the burghers and the peasants was ameliorated; the liberum relo was definitely suppressed, and the throne declared hereditary. For the moment it seemed as if such vigorous measures would infuse the elixir of a new life into Poland, but it is admitted even by some Polish authors that the country was in a state too deeply demoralized and gangrened to admit of a cure. It was in vain that Poland established in May. 1791, a new and extremely liberal Constitution, largely based upon English and American models. The Russians protested against such concessions to liberalism. and in November, 1892, a second treaty of partition was signed between the Russian and the Prussian sovereigns. The latter acquired the remainder of Great Poland, while the Russ sian boundary was advanced to the centre of Lithuania and Volhynia. By the second parti-tion Austria received nothing. The abortive rising under Koseiusko followed, after which, n 1795, took place the third and final division of Poland. Austria now obtained Cracow, with the country between the Pilica, the Vistula and the Bud; Prussia got Warsaw. with the territory as far as the Niemen, and the rest went to Russia. It is well known that in 1808 Napoleon took from Prussia some of her Polish pessessions and formed them into the small Duchy of Warsaw. comprising a population of a little more than 2,000,000. By the treaty of Vienna a new settlement was made of the Polish territory. Austria was to have Galicia and the salt mines of Wieliczka; Posen was to belong to Prussia, and that power was confirmed in what she had gained at the first partition, but deprived of her subsequent accessions. The city and district of Cracow were to form an independent State under the guarantee of the three powers; the remainder of the former kingdom of Poland, including the Duchy of Warsaw went to Russia, and was to form a constitutional kingdom subject to the Czar. We scarcely need remind the reader that this constitution was annulled after the Polish insurrection of 1830. The Diets thencame to an end and the country was henceforth governed by officials appointed directly by the Czar. Its ancient historical divisions were replaced by departnents bearing Russian names. The University of Wilno was suppressed and Kharkov was founded in its stead. The valuable library of Warsaw was carried off, and now forms part of the public library of St. Petersburg. Still worse was the fate of Poland after the ill-advised insurrection of 1860. Then all the old privileges were taken away, and it was decreed that henceforth all teaching in the schools and universities should be in the Russian language. By this ukase an organized effort was made to deprive the Poles of their last bond of union. Their institutions and laws have perished; in Galicia the Austrian civil code prevails; in Posen the Prussian Landrecht, and Russian law in the parts of oland under Russian Government. Yet in spite of the difficulties under which the dismembered country lives, there are still four fairly active centres of Polish literature-War saw, Cracow, Lemberg, and Posen, the last much less conspicuous than the other three. because the province has been more completely Germanized. The University of Warsaw has been Russified since the last insurrection, but the Cracow and Lemberg Universities, which are thoroughly Polish, boast some eminent professors. It seems that the Academy of Cracow, founded in 1872, is issuing editions of rare Polish authors of the sixteenth century. We are told also that many learned reviews appear in Polish, quite up to the level of the best English, German, and French periodicals.

FAR FROM THE WORLD. ave Dwellers of a Behring Sea Island Who Know No Other Land Than Theirs.

From the Port Foreneed Call. Ben E. Miller, a Port Townsend boy, whe was on the United States steamship Bear during her eight months' cruise in the northern seas, has many tales to relate of his adventures and the sights he has seen. Among other things he tells of the Rear's visit to King's Island in Behring Straits, thirty miles off Port Clarence, andto the shores of Alaska, where there are about 200 of the most curious islanders that ever were seen. The island or rock they inhabit is about half a mile wide and a little more than that distance long, and the islanders are cave dwellers, and live on

whate blubber and walrus ment. On the southeast side, closely nestling against the cliff, is a village of rave dwellers. One abode is built over and under the other. and to the right and left, giving them a strange